South America A useful book is the English translation of work compiled from the original sources of author

ity by an anonymous Spanish-American, and ing to set forth The History of South Am erica from its Discovery to the Present Time (Mar The title is misleading to this extent that the narrative carries us only to the early seve ties, and, therefore, tells us nothing about the war between Chili and Peru, about the substituti of a republic for a monarchy in Brazil, about th civil war in Chili, or about any of the revolution which have taken place in other South America. countries during the last quarter of a century On the other hand, the story of Spanish conques and settlement in South America has been recounted in the pages of Robertson and Pres cott. With regard, however, to the six decade ting the first attempts to gain deliverance from Spanish rule, this book meets a want which se far as we know, is not supplied by any othe ion. Especially interesting will be found the chapters dealing with the United ies of Colombia, with the United States of Venasuela, with the Republic of Ecuador, an with Belivia and Paraguay.

In the chapter on Colombia, attention is direct ed to the remarkable strategic and commercial advantages of this confederation, which has an extended coast both on the Caribbean Sec and on the Pacific Ocean. Only a network of ecting the two coasts with each other and with the interior is needed to develor sources of the country. Few Amer cans are alive to the prospective significance of the fact that, although, at present, Colombi ins only about three million inhabitants its area exceeds five hundred thousand square miles, or, in other words, is more than double that of Spain and Portugal. The greater par of this territory possesses a healthy climate, and well-watered and fertile soil, in which at the elevations respectively suited to them al kinds of cereals, fruits, roots, plante and vege tables grow spontaneously or can be cultivated Cacao, indigo, cotton, vanilla, tobacco and sugaare gathered in abundance; the woods most de sired for cabinet work, and even dyewoods, bal same, resins and caoutchouc are plentiful in its virgin forcets, while on the shores are to be found aris, mother of pearl and shells. From th Cordillers of the Andes, which ramifies over the whole region, are to be procured gold, platinum silver, lead, iron, copper, porphyry, marble, grind stones, coal, salt and precious stones. The Staof Cundinamarca, whose capital, Bogota, is also that of the confederation, yields the largest amounof gold. Near the village of Muzo is one of the chest emerald mines known; the stones from these mines are known all over the world under the commercial name of "Peruvian emeralda. Bogota, situated on the left bank of the river of the same name, is described by the author of this book as a beautiful and spacious city, contain ing not far from 100,000 inhabitants. All of its squares are adorned with fountains; there are many magnificent houses and five fine bridges; there are, also, a remarkable cathedral, an as tronomical observatory, the most elevated in existence, and the first to be erected in inter-tro pical regions, a museum of natural history, a school of medicine, a botanical garden, a libra of more than 15,000 volumes, an academy model led on that of Madrid, three colleges for men and one for women, a seminary, four hospitals, a theatre, a mint and a parliament house, built in 1871 Cartagena, the chief fortress of Colombia, is the erdinary station of the confederacy's war vessels The trade of the city is considerable, especially in all kinds of metals. The town, however, with its wide and straight, but sombre streets, its extensive colonnades, supported by low, heavy columns, and the flat roofs that project over the fronts of the houses, have something of the gloomy aspect of a cloister. The inhabitants, flying from the excessive heat and the sickness that prevails during the summer, take refuge in Turbaco, an Indian town situated in the interior of the country. It is noteworthy that more than a third of the population of the United States of Colombia are whit and that at least a sixth are civilized Indians o half-breeds. Almost all the rest are uncivilized Indiana, the number of negroes being relatively small. According to our author, the Colombians are extremely affable hospitable, disinterested and courageous. Their love of liberty is intense to conquer and preserve it, they have shown then selves capable of extraordinary sacrifices. They were compelled to struggle for the space of fifty years to attain the order of things that they not enjoy, and to overcome what long seemed th insuperable obstructions to civil and religious freedom raised by despotism and superstition The contest between the clergy and the civil power in this confederacy was supposed to be ended in ecclesiastics to interfere with politics. The present pol'tical institutions are liberal and philanthropic The Colombians have abolished the penalty of death, and imprisonment for crime never exceeds ter years. The organization of their penitentiary estab lishments aims at the moral and material improve ment of the prisoners. No titles of nobility and inctions not based upon merit are recog nized. Industry has been relieved from all tranmels and impediments. The right of public meeting is unlimited, and the press is really free Slavery has been long abolished, and is not toler ated under any guise, which cannot be said o certain other Spanish-American countries. Th convents have been suppressed, and the State has taken their property. Education is secular and Passports are abolished. We ob serve, finally, that under the Constitution, the small standing army can be recruited only by voluntary enlistment. There seems to be, in ord, no doubt that Colombia is to be called upor

among the nations of South America. II. The United States of Venezuela constitute an other example of a confederation. The Federa Constitution is modelled on the Constitution of Switzerland rather than on that of the United States of North America. The legislative authority is vested in a Congress of two houses: first a Sen ate of 24 members, each of the eight State Legislatures electing 3; and, secondly, a Chamber of Depu ties, one being chosen for every 35,000 inhabitants and one more for an excess of 15,000. The execu tive power is confided to a President, assisted by eight Ministers and a Federal Council. The Cor gress chooses the members of the Federal Council who, in their turn, elect the President. The Federa Council and the President hold office for tw years. The Federal Constitution of Colomb resembles that of Venezuela, except as regard the provisions relating to the executive power. In the former confederation, as in the United States of North America, the President is elected by the pec ple; the choice is determined by a majority of th States, and the successful candidate holds office for two years. The territory claimed by Venezuela comprises 632,807 square miles, which, however includes large tracts to the south of the equate the title to which is disputed by Colombia and Ecuador, and, also, the region between the Orinoc and the Essequibo, much of which is claimed by British Guiana. The area practically Venezuelan administration is not far from 450,000 square miles; it is, in other words, about twice the size of Spain. The population is not far from two and a half millions. It is mainly scattered along the coast, or on the tableland of the Venezuelo Granadino chain, at an altitude of four or five hundred feet, or on the banks of the rivers and of the numerous lakes. It is composed of heteroge neous elements, descendants of the Spaniards, wh are mainly concentrated in the principal towns civilized and uncivilized Indians, negroes, mula toes, mestigos and zambos. Its geographical and topographical conditions, its climate and the fertility of the soil all contribute to make Vene guels a country admirably suited for colonization and considerable efforts have been made during the last quarter of a century to attract emigrants from France and Germany, as well as from Spain. So far as legislative enactment goes, education is well provided for The total number of common, municipal and private schools exceeds 2,000; there are also two universities respectively located at Caracas and at Merida; nineteen federal colleges and various other public and private institutions for the higher education. The principal agricultural staple is coffee. During the ten years preseding 1862, Venezuela held the fifth place as the coffee experting countries of the world. Sugar

to fill at no distant date one of the first position

and indigo at one time figured largely among Vene zuela's exports, but both of them have now almost isappeared. Next after coffee and cocoa com con and cotton. We should note, finally that the aspect of the llanes or level plains of the Orinoco, a region described by Humboldt as vast "sea of grass," seems to have changed consid erably since it was visited by that traveller. Dr. P. Jonas saw the llanos in 1878, the immens plains were thickly grown with low trees, amon which the chaparro (evergreen oaks) and the mimsa were chiefly represented. The change in the character of the landscape is attributed to the dedine of horse and cattle rearing in the lianos, decline caused partly by political disturbance and partly by a murrain which broke out in 184 among horses, mules and asses and which raged uring several subsequent years.

In Ecuador no systematic survey has beundertaken, and there is considerable difference of opinion concerning the extent of its territor; According to one authority, the area is only 127,205 English equare miles; another makes it 248,580 by planimetric calculation on the basis of the map published by Kiepertin his hand atla-1872; Kiepert, by the way, did not assign to Ecu dor the disputed territory along both sides o the Maranon. The population was computed in 1875 at 866,187, exclusive of about 200,000 Indians. The author of the book before us reck ons the total population at 1,800,000, the white-

being credited with nearly 352,000. There is no doubt that Ecuador is one of the most opulent and beautiful countries on the globa. The mountains and virgin forcets hold immense riches in their depths, a vast number of valuable trees offering the spontaneous tribute of succulen ods coveted for building and cabinetmaking; deserving of particular notice are the otton tree, the Peruvian bark tree, the cinnan tree, the India rubber tree and the shrubs or plant which yield spices and scents, medicinal bal same, resins, gums and lace. The working of the under the Incas and the Spaniards, is now pracically abandoned, and agriculture is now a entirely neglected. The capital city, Quito, the seat of the Inca Atahualipa, has nearly 100,000 inhabitants, and is situated some 10,000 feet above the level of the sea. Perched on the side of a mountain, between two craters which are not extinct, it overlooks the streams and the grea orings of the two watersheds which descend to the Pacific and the Atlantic. Though rich in historical memories, it is a dull and backward town from the viewpoint of dvilization; its chie estivals are the interminable processions which traverse the steep streets and in which all the women of the city take part. Some religious buildings in the Moorish style recall the architecture of the Conquistadores. It possesses a beautiful ob-servatory, the first erected on the Equator; a public library and a normal school, a celebrated university and manufactures of cotton, linen us that its white inhabitants are distinguished for the purity and nobility of their type, the variety of wtheir dress and the innate good taste which, even in the lowest classes, is shown in the cut of their garments and the harmonious and picturesque combination of colors in their carpets; nowhere, perhaps, not even in the most gifted races, is artistic feeling carried to a greater height. After Quito, Guay aguil is the most important town in the Republic ts port monopolizes the output of the so-called Panama hats, the fabrication of which is a special ity of Ecuador; the best are wade in the town of Monte Cristo, from the leaf named toquilla. Cuenca, the capital of the province of Azuay, and the third city of the State, carries on an Important trade in grain and has several sugar refinerie and a cotton mill. In its neighborhood may be distinguished traces of the great causeway of the Incas, which formerly connected Quito with Curco. From a political point of view, Ecuador different

mbis and Venezuels in being a unified instead of a federal republic. According to the on of 1843, which has been modified several times, and especially in 1869, the executive rity is vested in a President chosen for six years by a majority of 900 electors, who, on their part, are elected by universal suffrage. He is re eligible only after the conclusion of the succeeding Presidential term. His authority is limited; h cannot dissolve nor prolong the Congress, nor has he the right of veto. The legislative power is exer cised by two Chambers. The first is composed of eighteen Senators; how they are chosen is not stated by the writer of this book, nor by any o the other authorities whom we have consulted The second Chamber is made up of thirty deputies who are elected by universal suffrage. The jury system has been introduced in criminal causes. Slavery was abolished in 1854, but the lot of the es has not been greatly improved since that date. They are employed in the conveyance avy burdens, left in m and are forcibly conscripted to serve as private soldiers, the whites refusing to enter the except as officers. Only emigration, which was long stupidly opposed, can develop industry and agriculture in this republic.

IV. The isolation of Bolivia counteracts its natural

dvantages, and shuts it off almost completely

from the commercial activities of other South American peoples. It formerly had one outlet o the Pacific, in the port of Cobija, but this it has lost wing to the war between Chili and Peru, in which Bolivia took, for a time, the part of the latter com batant. At present, its surplus products mus sock an exit through Chilian ports, though ultimately they may avail themselves of tributaries not yet much used, of the Amazon and the River Plate. Before the war for independence a very ex ensive traffic was maintained between Bolivi and the provinces of the River Plate for supplies of cattle and mules. In the 472,000 square mile that form its territory, it is estimated that there are 2,500,000 inhabitants, of whom Indians of pure blood constitute nearly three-fourths; o whites there are very few; the remainder of th opulation are, for the most part, half breeds In spite of the abolition of slavery, the Indians do not yet enjoy complete liberty, for their labor is regulated and they have to give some days to the State plantations. Bolivia lies, for the most part within the tropical zone, but its climate and productions are dependent rather upon the elevation of different parts of the land than upon its geo graphical situation. In the Punas, or highl districts, the air is always dry and perceptibly cold in the Yungas, or low, tropical tracts, the climate is unhealthy. The country, on the whole, is exceptionally fruitful. The valleys and lower plains exhibit the tropical flora in all their splendor while in the mountainous parts all kinds o netals, and especially gold, silver, copper and lead, are extracted from the earth. The first-named metal, however, is in Bolivia very difficult to work, owing, sometimes, to its inaccessible situation, and sometimes to an admixture with an or which is very stubborn, and which would require a great outlay for smelting. The silver mines, or the other hand, are numerous, prolific and easily The well known mountain of Potosi has worked. been excavated for three centuries, and has produced, during that time, more than \$450,000 000. Celebrated also are the argentiferous sands of Carangas, in which are encountered pieces of solid silver called potatoes, on accoun of their form. Scarcely less famous is the copper mine of Corocoro. The number of gold and silve mines now worked is computed by the writer of this book at 148. Agriculture in Bolivia is very back ward, and there are hardly any industries; the principal articles of export are metals, drugs, hides and guano. Chuquisaca, the political capi tal, better known by the official name of Sucre has about 30,000 inhabitants; it is situated not far from the left bank of the Pilcomayo, an affluent of the Paraguay, which, Itself, flows into the River Plate. It is the seat not only of the federal govern nent, but also of an archbishop; its university is of high repute and possesses one of the best libraries in South America. The houses in Sucre are well built, and have magnificent gardens, in which are reared almost all the fruit trees of Europe. is not plentiful, but it is good, and well distributed by various fountains. La Paz, the commercia capital of the republic, is a large and well-built

town, placed to the southeast of Lake Titicacs, on

the banks of a small river, which, in the rain;

season, or during the melting of the snow, carrie

down grains of gold, which the people collec-

when the waters subside. The principal trade of

mate, or Paraguay tea. It has a theatre, a mu- United States, and during his rule foreign vessel

this town, which contains some 50,000 souls, is in

seum, a library, well-paved streets and beautiful fountains; the people are described as hospitable, and the women as especially attractive. The next most important towns are Tipuant, well known for its gold mines, Potosi, and Cochabamb which may be termed the granary of Bolivia The political organization of the country is unique it still retains the impress of the liberator from whom it takes its name. Eyery ten citizens ap point an elector, whose authority lasts for for years; the electors elect three Chambers. That of the tribunes, chosen for four years, has the exclusive privilege of legislating on the imposts, peace and war; the Senate, which lasts eight years, watches over the judicial tribunals and religion; the Cham ber of Censors, whose members hold their seat for life, has a political and moral power which bears a certain likeness to that exercis Arcopagus of Athens and the Censors of Rome it is the guardian of the Constitution and the fulfillment of public treation. The executive ower is vested in a President, who is elected for life by the three Chambers meeting in joint sees he is aided by a Vice-President, whom he appoin his successor ex-officio. His constitutional privi leges are restricted to the nomination of civil and military officers: administrative functions are delegated wholly to the Ministry, which is respo sible to the Senate. The judicial department enjoy perfect independence, the members composing i being proposed by the people and chosen by Legislature.

The area of the Republic of Uruguay is 78 185 square miles, or a little more than that of the State of Missouri. Its present estimate population is 750,000, of whom 175,000 are masses the city of Montevideo. It is the smaller independent State in South America, but by no means the least important from the viewpoi of its commercial transactions. Up to a recen date its history, from the time of the uprising against Spanish rule, has been one long reco of foreign invasions and intrigues and of po oal folly and crimes. Originally, the Bands Plate was called, protested against the insur ectionary movement of the provinces on the wee of that great river, and intended to remain love mother country. It was not until 1814 that it fell into the hands of the Arcentines 1821, the Banda Oriental was partly subduced by Brazil, and it was not until 1888 that its ir dependence was acknowledged by its powerfu neighbor on the north. Even since then it ha been the object of frequent pretensions on the par of Brazil and of Argentina. The principal in dustry of Uruguay is the breeding of sheep and cattle; more than 90 per cent. of the exports con sists of livestock and their produce. Since the beginning of the nineteenth century the valu of the exports and the imports has increase twenty-fold. The foreign trade of Montevid is very important, and increases yearly. Be sides hides and wool, the exports include and ostrich feathers, while the principal imports are flour, textile fabrics and beverages. The climate, although severe in winter and in sum mer suffocatingly hot, is very healthy; the city had never been attacked by an epidemic until 1857, when the yellow fever made great ravages. The proportion of whites in the population Uruguay is nearly 80 per cent, owing to the large immigration of Italians, French, English and Germana In Montevideo the proportion of whites exceeds 42 per cent. The streets of the cap tal city are broad and straight, with good side walks; the houses generally have but one story. but they are very commodious and of good ar There is a large square, in which are the most imposing edifices, including conspicu ously a town house, a cathedral and a prison Montevideo contains a university, a school of medicine and of anatomy and many other scientific and literary institutions. The Republic of Uruguay gives great attention education; there is no town, however unimportant, that has not at least one primary school in which the instruction is gratuitou From a political viewpoint we may note tha legislative functions are vested in a General Assembly consisting of two Chambers. The Senate has eighteen members, one for each department; the 51 Deputies of the Lower House are elected annually and directly by the people. The ex-ecutive power is exercised by a President, who is chosen by the General Assembly

No South American community has had ore remarkable history than has Paraguay The annals of this isolated republic, from the civ ilization of the natives by the Jesuits up to the close of the disastrous war against Brazil, Argen tine and Uruguay, will be found recounted different chapters of the book before us. In 1767. the Jesuits, who had settled in Paraguay, and had, practically, made of it a principality of their own, were expelled from al as they had been from the Portugese some years before, and all their goods were confiscated. The territory occupied by their reductiones, or parishes, in Paraguay, had been ceded by Spain to Portugal in 1750, although the latter did not assum control of them until eleven years afterward. It is admitted by the author, who is no friend o the Jesuits, that, in order to recruit the personne of their missions, and to attract the wandering tribes, they almost always avoided the employment of force, and gained their converts by persuasion Subsequently, Paraguay fell again under the rule of Spain, but, in 1811, it declared its inde pendence. Five years later a Congress, composed for the most part of simple-minded men proclaimed Jose Gaspar Rodriguez de Francis supreme and perpetual dictator. This man was to make Paraguay feel for a quarter of a century the weight of one of the most singular tyrannic recorded by history, a tyranny exercised over population trained to obedience by the Jesuite ignorant of arts and industries and possessed of only a rudimentary knowledge of agriculture. Rodriguez de Francia was then 59 years old o medium stature, lean and vigorous, with blace and penetrating eyes. His father, who was of son, Rodriguez, had been destined, originally for an ecclesiastical career, and finished his studies in the Argentine university of Cordova, but, after taking the degree of doctor in Canon Law and th cology, he renounced orders and be Chair of The came an advocate. Always ready to defend the weak against the strong and the poor against the rich, he was successively elected a member of the municipality, mayor, secretary of the supreme committee, consul and dictator.

VI.

He carried into public life the same disinteres ness that he had shown as a private citizen. Al ways economical with the public funds, he would accept no more than \$3,000 of the \$9,000 which the congress had assigned for his household ex penditures. At the beginning of his dictatorship he went to mass every day, but he soon ceased to appear at church, and dismissed his chaplain having conceived a profound aversion for the out ward forms of religion. He re-established, how ever, the system of rigorous isolation which had been adopted by the Jesuit missions. He forbade under the severest penalties, every sort of com munication between the inhabitants of Paragua; and their neighbors, as well as the entry of any foreigner into the country. Re-establishing other traditions of the Jesuits, he seized the crop and stored them on account of the government which was administered on the communal prin ciple. He undertook the exchange of product and, when hands were needed for the harvest, has recourse to enforced enlistment, applying the sys tem of forced labor on behalf of the State. mately, when he opened a point of communication on the Brazilian frontier, he settled the tariff of imports, all of which were deposited in a kind of bazaar under military guard, the quantity of the articles which any one purchaser could acquir being determined beforehand. Unquesti Francia's system resulted in forming a nationality of part of the Indian race, which has remain nadic and uncivilized in the rest of America and produced a great military power, as was a tested by the duration and intensity of the war which destroyed it Francia died in Septembe 1840, at the age of 83. Less than eight month afterward a congress conferred the executive power for three years on two consuls, one of who was Francia's nephew, Carlos Antonio Lopez In March, 1844, Lopez received from a congrethe title of President of the Republic for ten years and inherited his uncle's absolute power. posed to terminate the isolation in which Pare guay had been hitherto held, he signed treaties of ree with England, France, Sardinia and the

were able to reach the Paraguayan capital, Ass brought his subject Indians under the common law riving them the status of citizens. He established chools of primary instruction, an iron foundry and a military and naval arsenal, and built a rail way from the capital to Villa Rica, the most im ant centre of agricultural production. In 1854 the National Congress, after examining and aproving all the acts of his administration, re-ele Lopez for another ten years, and he, using a right which the Constitution gave him, app September, 1862, his son, Francisco Solano Lopez the Vice-Presidency of the Republic. afterward the elder Lopez died, and his son, at the age of 85, succeeded him in the virtual dictator-

accession to power, he supported a progressive

ted the cultivation of cot advanced to foreigners considerable sums to be employed in enterprises of general utility, sent number of young men periodically to be educated in the Old World, and exempted from all impor duty such machines and tools as were applicable agriculture and manufactures. In spite of the ontinuance of a few despotic practices, which the new President had inherited from his predecessor the Republic of Paraguay saw opening before he in 1868 an era of prosperity hitherto unexampled Then followed the war against Brazil, Argen tina and Uruguay, a war which lasted more than five years, and which ended in May, 1870, with the death of the President and the destruction of the ast Paraguayan army. There is no doubt that in this contest, Solano Lopez displayed the energy enacity and courage of a patriot and a hero He was brave and intelligent, of humane senti-ments, and earnestly occupied with the future of his country, which a war as savage as it was usested, working his personal ruin at the same time. The population of Paraguay which, before the war, was reckoned at 1,500,000. was reduced, according to the census of Jan. 1 1878, to 221,079, of whom less than 30,000 were men over 15 years of age. The new contracted area of Paraguay is variously computed at 145,000 and at 91,960 square miles. The present popula-tion is estimated at 476,000. The Brazilian army of occupation did not leave the territory of th Republic until 1876, but, in November, 1870, a congress elected by universal suffrage proclaimed a constitution modelled on that of the United States, under which there was to be a president elected fo three years, a vice-president, a cabinet composed of five ministers, a senate and a chamber of de puties. Foreigners were to be admitted to the enoyment of the same rights as those poss natives, except the right of holding the high political and administrative posts. Such, substan tially, is the political constitution of Paraguay to Its institutions are nominally creditable but it is slow in recovering from the prostration which it suffered in the seventh decade of this century, and its independence is due to the rivalship of Brazil and Argentina for its possession.

there was, for some time after the declaration of its independence, a violent struggle between the Federalists on the one hand and the so-called Unitarians, or advocates of a unified republic on the other. The Pederalists were, at first successful, and framed the Federal Constitution of 1828. Subsequently, the Unitarians gained power, and established the Constitution of 1833, which aimed to reconcile liberty and republi can forms with a strong executive power, and with the concession of a large place to the advantages of fortune, if not of birth. The Constitution of 1833 recognized three powers, to wit, the legisla tive, the executive and the judicial. The first of these is exercised by a national congress, composed of a senate, having twenty members chosen from the provinces by indirect election for a term of nine years, and a chamber of deput ics, elected directly for three years by the adult male citizens who are able to read and write, and who pay yearly taxes to a certain amount. The executive power is committed to a president sen by indirect election and holds office for a term of five years. The right of re-election which he originally possessed, was suppressed in 1871. He has the command of the land and sea forces, and can proclaim martial law. He appoints the administrative officers of provin as well as all the employees, great or small, in the central government. He appoints the highe legal and judicial functionaries, but their nomination must proceed from the Council of State, a minority of whom are named by the Chamber When, with the sanction of the Senate, the President assumes the command of the national troops in person, he has the exclusive bestowal of naval and military commissions, though, ordinarily appointments of this nature must be approved by the Senate. We have said that the Constitu tion of Chili is aristocratic, or oligarchical. President Balmaceda owed his overthrow and death to his inclination to use his large executive powers for encroachment upon those vested in the Senate and Chamber of Deputies. That the legislature is based on an oligarchical principle is evident not only from the indirect election of the Senate. and the property and educational qualification needed to vote for a member of the lower house. but also from the fact that, in order to become a senator, it is necessary to possess an income of \$2,000 a year, while, from a deputy, an income of \$500 is required. The practical effect of these rovisions is to give to a moderate number o opulent and inter-related families a degree of political ascendency in Chili to which the only modern American counterpart is the influence which was commanded in South Carolina before the war by the larger slave-holders. So much for e constitution which, on this side of the Atlantic is unique. For an interesting account of the semi ndependent community of the Araucanians who constitute the Transvaal of Chili, we mus refer the reader to the book itself.

The Earlier History of Switzerland. A number of treatises have been published of

late in the United States and England on the structure and working of the federal and can tonal systems of Switzerland, and some of these works have given an account of the politica changes which have taken place in that country since the French Revolution. Such books neede to be supplemented with an authoritative description of the preceding stages in the developmen of an interesting people, and this want is now supplied by an English translation of the Short History of Switzerland by Dr. Karl Dandlike illane). This book is no mere abridgment of the three-volume history by the sam author. On the contrary, the delineation of th condition and constitutional position of the Swiss cantons in the Middle Ages, the chapters devoted to the traditions concerning the origin of the Swiss Confederation and the account of constitutional conditions in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries have been essentially enlarged. Our purpose in the present notice is to glance at the conclusions reached by Dr. Dandliker regarding certain controverted points in that par of his country's history which preceded its emer rence as a European power after the remarkable victories gained over Duke Charles of Burgundy

It seems to be established that Switzerlan was inhabited at the earliest times when mankind can be proved to have existed in Europe. Here, as in France, and Belgium, human implement nade of flint, together with the bones of mammalia long since extinct, such as the mammoth reindeer and cave bear, have been found in caves in many places. The nature of the country and the climate must, in those days, have been no less rude and inhospitable than it now is in the extrem north, and men lived like the savages of to-day dwelling, it seems, for the most part, in caverns and hence named "troglodytes." Their origin and the causes of their disappearance are wrappe in obscurity. Many centuries, and, perhaps hundreds of thousands of years must have elapse between the date of their first existence in Europ and the assumption by nature of her present as pect. Of the far later period, when men took to fixed abiding places and began to seek a highe dvilization, the earliest settlements yet made known, those, namely, attested by the lake o pile dwellings, were discovered about forty years

age. Their existence may be traced to the first years before Christ. These dwellings were made of wicker-work, clay and straw, and stood upon a row of piles driven firmly into the bed of the lake and joined together by wooden planks. It is not qui whether these singular habitations were deviced by the inhabitants for the sake of fishing or from the necessity of defending themselves against wild beasts and savage tribes. A distinct picture, however, of the mode of life of the denizens has been handed down by the numberless utensil implements and animal and vegetable remains which have been found on the attes of such lake dwellings, deeply embedded under layers of peat, or in the beds of lakes. These articles justify the inference that the pile builders had already taker Solano Lopez, who had completed his studies in Europe, was even less bound than his father to Francia's restrictive traditions. From his the first step toward a higher civilisation; they were no longer in the primitive condition of mer nunters and fishers, but were already engaged in cattle farming and agriculture; they kept oxen, sheep, goats and pigs; they planted barley, wheat and flax, and were acquainted with fruit trees, they did not cultivate them. For these purpos they used implements skilfully fashio stone, bone, wood and horn, such as knives, hatchets, chiscle, awis and needles. When, later, proably by means of barter, they became acquainted with the metals, bronze and fron, they turne these more pliable and more durable materials account, and thus made their implements muc more perfect. From the pile dwellings of the Lakes of Neuchatel and Bienne we find that this progress was first made in western Switzerland, which lay nearer to the advanced civilization of the Rhon district. Little by little men forecok their lake dwellings, some of which seem to have been preserved as late as the time of the Romana, and as tled themselves on the mainland in the vicinity Most of the pile buildings were destroyed by fir en proved that many were foreaker in very early times, even before the discover

A number of different tribes then occupied th obroges around Geneva; the Sequan around the Lakes of Neuchatel and Bienne; the Raurici around Basic; the Rhestians, a mingled race of Celts and Etruscans, throughout Alpine districts of the southeast, as far as the Lake of Zug, the upper lake of Zurich and the Lake of Constance; the Veragri and Seguini in Valais. More noteworthy than any of these were the Helvetians who originally occupies southern Germany as far as the Main, best Central Switzerland, and whose power surpass that of any other Celtic tribe. They were divided into almost independent sub-tribes or the county assemblies managing local affairs Possessed of many elements of a higher zation, such as a gold coinage and a Greek a phabet, they were also, as Cessar, their conquessaid, "the bravest people of the Gaula" WI the great migration had begun with the invasion of Roman territory by the Cimbri and Teuton a part of the Helvetians had followed general course toward the south, and, in year B. C. 107 had totally defeated the Romans at Agen on the Garonne and had forced them to pass under the yoke. Falling to We would not take leave of this book without follow up their victory, they had been forced to a glance at the Constitution of Chili, which is retreat after the greater part of them had been denore aristocratic than the organic law of any other Latin-American community. In Chili, as feated (B. C. 101), together with the Climbri, by Marius, in the plains of Lombardy. The Celta in most other Spanish provinces in South America. did not remain independent much longer, the gradual advance of the Roman eagles across the Alps threatened their freedom; scattered, divided and incapable of founding any durable state they became an easy prey to the conquerors of the world. The Romans had already found feeting at Geneva, by conquering the country of the Allobroges, when the Helvetians, remember ing the sunny lands of southern Gaul, wishing to avoid the continual aggressions made upo them by Teutonic hordes from the north, and also incited by their ambitious chief, Orgetorix migrated afresh in March, B. C. 58, after having set fire to all their twelve towns and four hundre villages. Notwithstanding their stout resistance they were defeated by Cresar, then engaged in the conquest of Gaul, at Bibracte, Identified with Mount Beuvrais, west of Autun. The survivor were sent back by him as Roman subjects to rebuild their burned dwellings, and to defend the Rhine frontier against the Teutona. In the following year. Valais was brought into subjection by on of Canar's Generals, and about forty years late the wild Rhetlan tribes, which had frequently ravaged the valley of the Po. succumbed to the Roman legions. The Celts of Switzerland were thus subjected to the Romans, and their own n tional development was entirely arrested. They have left, however, a heritage behind them in th shape of proper names. A number of places which have now grown into flourishing towns owe their origin to them, as, for instance, Geneva Lausanne, Zurich, Basle, Avenches, Soleure and Coire: many mountains and rivers also received

Albis, Kamor and Sentis; the Rhine, Rhone

III.

With the exception of one uprising of the Hel-

ctians during the civil war which followed Nero's

drath (A. D. 68-69), the vanquished peoples of

Switzerland seem to have enjoyed for some three

on the whole, oppressed, and the Romans did

centuries almost unbroken peace. They were not

Reuss, Thur and Toss.

their utmost to accommodate their regulations to existing conditions. They brought with them, however, a more refined civilization which the prolonged tranquillity permitted to take deep root To meet the military requirements, workshops inns and towns were established. Discharge officers and soldiers built themselves villas or country houses after the Roman style, with mo saics, frescoes and baths. At Aque (Baden Baden), public baths were constructed of great size and magnificence, which became much frequented. Romans betook themselves thither in numbers. The miserable conditions of the Celtic period vanished by degrees before Roman civili zation; roads were made across the Alps, namely, over the Julier, Splugen, Septima and St. Benard; even across the wild forest and marsh land of the Rheintal and around the Lake of Constance a broad highway was made. Commerce developed rapidly; various products found their way from the north of France and Germany to Switzer land and Italy, and the products of the last-named country which were most esteemed by the Romans. such as cheese, wax, honey, pine wood and resi were likewise exported. The wares of the south such as oil, oysters and wine, were import return, and vineyards were planted around the Lake of Geneva and in the Pays de Vaud. With their civilization, the Romans introduced their State religion, and the rude rites of Celtic worship almost disappeared. Even over the dispositions and habits of the common people, Roman culture exercised a salutary influence: the Allobroges ex changed the sword for the plough; the predators Rhætians adopted gentler habits, and conducted the traveller and his sumpter mule peaceably across the mountains, or employed themselves in Alpin farming. In the larger towns, such as Aventicum, (Avenches) and Augusta (Basie), the Colt. learned divers arts and crafts from their Roman masters. It is important to note, however, that Roman civilization made a much deeper impres upon what is now western Switzerland than it did further eastward. The former section, lying in close proximity to the southern part of Gaul which had become altogether Roman, Roman colonists sprang up in it, forming centers of culture Here the manners of Rome were adopted, as also er arts and learning. Aventicum, about ter times as large as the modern Avenches, surround ed by walls and protected by between eighty and nipety towers, had an amphitheatre for gladia torial contests, a theatre, a temple, a triumphaarch, a public gymnasium, great guilds and ever an academy with Roman professors. The mag nificent capitals of columns, friezes and orne ments which have been found there prove that the Celtic inhabitants of this district had made a close approach to perfection in Italian architecture The Celtic language and customs which, in east orn Switzerland, the relatively few Roman colon ists were unable to expel, vanished in the wes before those of Rome, and the Latin tongue took such firm root that it withstood the storms of Ala mannian and Burgundian migrations, and is still preserved, though in the modified form of French, in western Switzerland and Lower Valaja, while man culture in the eastern parts, being but little disseminated and little developed, crumbled like a rotten edifice under the blows of the Germa

When the great southward migration of the Teutonic tribes set in at the end of the year 406

A. D., the Alamanni advanced nearly to the Rha-tian Alps (Grisons), and by the middle of the century, Roman supremacy was at an end in the northeast of Switzerland. They had temporarily over-run Switzerland as early as 260 A. D., and had burned the beautiful Aventicum to the ground. This time the Alamanni came to stay. Like the Helvetians of former times, they held, b side northeastern Switzerland, the country between the Rhine and the Main, as also Alsace on the left bank of the Rhine. Roman manner and the Roman tongue were perpetuated only in the rocky districts of Rhatia, where the Romance language is now spoken, and in the southwest of Switzerland, where the French speech now prevails, being protected in the former by the mountains, and having been ineradicably planted in the latter. In neither of these parts, how ever, was the Roman speech preserved in its put ity; for, while in Rhetia it mingled with the Rhestian, which was a Celtic tongue, in the south west a Teutonic element was introduced by the Burgundians. To comprehend the future his tory of the two sections of Switzerland, it is im-portant to bear in mind that the Alamanni and odians met with very different conditions Burgur in their new abodes, and established themselves in quite different ways. During fierce struggles which had lasted almost two centuries, the Ala nanni had conceived a deep hatred of the Ro mans. At the time of their conquests in the south in the early years of the fifth century, the popu-

lation of castern Switzerland was thin, and civi lization was at a low ebb. Thus they were con paratively free from Roman influence, and might settle down in their own fashion, much as the Angle-Saxons did in Britain. They, accordingly took possession of the previously Christianized land as pagans, sword in hand; effaced almost every trace of the Roman civilization which sti xisted, and killed or enslaved the former inhabitants. They thus introduced in eastern Switzer land a purely German mode of life, which has continued to this day. Their settlements were all made in the old Teutonic style—relatives, fami lies and individuals settled wherever they pleased attracted by some spring, field or forest. They disdained to live like the Romans, in towns of ttached houses, preferring open hamlets, or better still, scattered farmsteads where each man surrounded his dwelling wit a courtyard and a hedge, such as may be seen in Appenzell and Poggenburg. The name of the first founder of the farmstead was afterward transferred to the place itself, hence the many place appellations derived from the names of per sons or families ending in wiler, wil, hofen, hausen &c. Under the Burrundians in western Switze land there was a quite different state of things They stood in more friendly relations to the Ro mens than did the Alamanni; they had obtaine their land by a formal treaty, and they shared it peaceably with a number of Romans, the Burgundians receiving two-thirds of every ouse or farm, and of all arable lands and servants. In west Switzerland, moreover, they were con fronted by a far more fully developed civilization from the outset; they respected and esteemed Roman ways; they lived together after the Roman fashion in enclosed towns or boroughs, and wer soon merged into one nation with the Romans as had been the case with the Franks. In spit of these important differences, the two races the Alamanni and the Burgundians, tively occupying eastern and western Switzer land, had certain political and social principle political and social principle and institutions in common. Such were the matical division of the land into "districts and "hundreds," and the regulations regard ing the Almend or undivided land rounding a settlement, the Mark, or bound ary between two settlements, and the Markgenossenschaft, or "Association of the Such, also, were the Wergeld, Mark. fine, which a murderer was obliged to pay to the kindred of his victim; the popular assembly and the three-fold divisions of rank, namely, first freemen, subdivided into nobles, landholders and landless freemen; secondly, freedmen, and, lastly, serie or bondmen. IV.

The development of Switzerland after the Ala nannian and Burgundian occupation was not unrestrained the Teutonic peoples soon turning their arms against one another, and a third Teutonic race, the Franks, succeeding in gaining an as endancy over the others. The Alamanni were overthrown by Clovis in A. D. 496 in a battle on the Upper Rhine. In 582, the sons of Clovis completely routed the Burgundians in the battle of Autun. Four years later Coire-Rhætia, now the Grisons, was ceded to the Franks by the Ostrogoths, to whose kingdom it had belonged, and the Merovingians now reigned supreme throughout Switzerland. The Franks, however, did not subvert the native institutions and customs, either in Western or Eastern Switzerland, so far as the civil and military administration was concerned, but itmost to sprea the Alamanni; the Burgundians were already con verted. The principal factor in the conversion of the Alamanni was the influence exercised by Irisl monks, who devoted themselves with enthusiasm ers, driven out of Gaul, came to the Lake of Zurich about 610, whence they proceeded to the neighbors hood of the Lake of Constance. Excess of zeal against the pagan rights practiced by the Alamanni brought him and his companions into great peril. Columban escaped into Italy; Gallus, one of his disciples, left behind on account of sickness built himself a cell in 614, on the wilds of Steinach.

and gathered disciples about him. One hundred and six years afterward, Othmar founded on the spot the Benedictine monastery of St. Gall, destined to become a beacon of Christian culture in eastern Switzerland About A. D. 800, the whole of Switzerland be came a province and an integral part of the empire of Charles the Great It was then divided into number of counties under royal governors, who administered justice and mustered troop in the King's name, but, after Charles's death, the feudal system came into existence, and the counties became hereditary fiefs in the hands of powerful families. In 917, aross om of Alamannia, or Suabia, which lasted till the thirteenth century. The people of Switzerland suffered much at this period. Not only did the predatory Hungarians and Saracen cing from the east and the latter from strongholds in the south of France, penetrat into towns, villages and monasteries, devastate the fields and stop traffic, but, among the Swiss them selves, fends and civil wars were almost incessant The condition of the freemen became worse and worse; they either had to yield themselves as vassals, or copyhold tenants, to temporal or spiritual lord, or else to become freedmen, or bondmen of the nobility. A powerful aristocracy was gradually developed. Notwithstanding the dissolution of the political conditions, ecclemastical learning flourished signally about the end of the ninth and the beginning of the tenth century. The rich monasteries of St Gall. Zurich, Rheinau and Reichenau kept up the intellectual life which had been awakened in the time of Charles the Great Especially distinguished was the monastery of St. Gall, to which belong ed the famous singer and composer, Notker the Stammerer, or the Saint, also Rathert of Zurich the historian of the monastery, and Tutilo, the great master sculptor. The ancient classics read; boys learned to make extempore Latin hexameters and pentameters. All the arts and sciences were taught and cultivated; here the study of the German language received a powerful stimulus, and here was finished the first German celestial globe. Writing and painting were sedulously cultivated at St Gail, and the production of illuminated manuscripts became an organized industry. Compared with the neighborhood of St. Gall and eastern Switzerland in general, the western, or Burgundian section, remained for some centuries after Charles the Great, intellectually dead; it was the German element which, at this period, took the lead in the development of the Swiss people. The influence of the German element was considerably increased when the German Emperor, Henry I, in 1038, united Burgundy with Alamannia and Coire-Rhætia. From the eleventh century, Germans are found in great numbers in Romance territory; the Rhætian aristocracy was chiefly formed of Germans. The Ger mans also advanced to the southwest; the Bernese Oberland and Engleberg were colonized from Alamannia, and, later, Upper Valais was also peopled by men of the same stock. Germans pushed forward even to the valley of the Saane River, which bisects the canton of Fribourg. Thus the predominant character of Switzerland be

came German

A counterbalance to the power of the feudal nobility in Switzerland was ultimately furnished munes. A large number of houses and farmsteads lying near one another would form a domestic and political society called a "commune" (gemeinde) or peasantry (pursane). Such a fellowship related especially to the possession of a common tract of woodland and pasture, undivided and enjoyed by the whole community, called the almend, or mark. The Markgen or Association of the Mark, also looked after other agricultural concerns, and fixed the time for vintage and barvest. Some forest commune managed to extend these rights, and to obtain their freedom, by successive limitations of the rights of their lords, by purchase or by force; in the formation of these free communes, we find the germ of Swiss liberty. Of particular importance were the communes in towns. These were formed in places nded by walls within which the houses adjoined one another. This method of colonization, once detested by the Alamanni, came more and more into favor as a means of defence during the time of the Hungarian inroads and intesting feuds. Such walled towns gradually acquired considerable privileges beyond those posse villages; the right of holding fairs, the right of coinage, the right to elect municipal officers, to levy tolls, and to exercise local jurisdiction. All the Swiss towns, whether founded by ecclesiastica or temporal lords, rose to distinction in the twelfth. and thirteenth centuries by trade and manufac ture, and became the seat of a new civilization. Certain forest communes gained local indepen dence contemporaneously with the towns. The inhabitants of Url, Schwig, Unterwalden, and Glarus and some others were protected by their mountains, as were the towns by their walls. The dwellers in the mountain cantons had been, from the first, united by the possession of a common woodland and pasture land. It was these forest cantons that took the lead in the Swiss up rising against the House of Hapsburg, and organized the confederation which was to play se great a part in Central Europe in the last quarter of the fifteenth, and the first quarter of the six-

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V. What has Dr. Dandliker to say about the Tell legends' He points out that, down to the second half of the sixteenth century, the traditions relating to William Tell were uncertain, and to some extent contradictory. It was the chronicler Giles Tschudi of Glarus who, in 1570, wrought the legendary materials into a pseudo-historical picture He followed the account of Tell given about 1470 in the Cheonik des sociesen Buches (Chronicle of the White Book), but amplified and embellished it, partly with oral traditions of the country, and partly by using a poet's license. It is his version of the legend which was accepted as authentic history for many generations, and which has become the property of the civilized world through Schiller's drama of "William Tell."

The truth of the Tell story, however, was quee tioned at an early date. About 1600, Franz Guillimann of Fribourg, ventured to dispute the trustworthiness of the tale on the score of the diverse and irreconcilable versions. In the eighteenth century it began to be noticed that, in the folklore of Denmark and Iceland, much older traditions than those of Switzerland, there were tales of a skillful marksman (Toko, Eigil) who was fore shoot an apple from the head of his favorite little son, and who drew out a second or third arrow in order to kill, in case of failure, the tyrant who had subjected him to the ordeal. The first to notice this circumstance were J. C. Iselin and Uriel Freuden berger, the latter in a pamphlet entitled Guillaume Tell, Fable Danoise (1760). Tell's advocates, or their part, resorted to forgery in order to furnish documentary evidence of Tell's reality. In the Journal of Schatoril, the name "Trullo" was altered to "de Tello;" in the parish register of Attinghausen "Nall" became "Tall." A story was also invented of a decision of the Landsgemeinde of Uri in 1887, by which a pilgrimage to Stein was revived, and it was also ordained that, in Burglen, where stood the house of William Tell, the "first restorer of freedom," a sermon should be preached; and of testimony given by 114 persons in Uri in 1868 to the Langsgemeinde that they had known Tell, "as if," says Dr. Dandliker, "it would have been neces sary, supposing Tell to have been an historical nage, to refute doubts about him only seventy

or eighty years after his existence. Through the labors of Joseph Utich Rokk, who, from 1832 to 1885, sifted and published all the records bearing upon the origin of the Swiss Confederation, criticism gained a complete victory. It was then shown that originally the inhabitants of the Forest States were mostly serie and dependents, and that they only obtained their local independence gradually, in the course of the thirteenth century, and in close connection with events in the history of the German Empire. It was made evident that the Perpetual League of certain cantons was concluded in 1291 and not in 1808; that it is ely conceivable that there w appointed by the Hapsburgs after 1281, and that the Gesslers were never lords of Kussnach. It is, indeed, made clear that the traditions concerning the storming of castles and the meeting of the founders of the League on the Rutii have some historical foundation, but they can by no means lay claim to acceptance as authentic history in detail.

VI. We encounter the germ of the federal principle in Switzerland during the first half of the thir teenth century. Following the example of the Lombardic and a few North German towns, Berne in 1245 concluded an offensive and defensive alliance with Fribourg; with the same aim of reciprocal protection, Fribourg and Morat combined, as did also Berne and Lucerne-Following the precedent set by the towns, Schwiz formed a league with the other two forest cantons. Unterwalden and Uri, and, alt 1245-1247, the three entered into an alliance with Lucerne and Zurich. This first coalition of town and country communes was the nucleus of the confederation. The war of the Swiss Confederates for independence lasted until May, 1412, when Austria virtually surrendered her claims to dominion over Schwiz and Unterwalden and her rights over Lucerne, Zug and Glarus. Of the many contemporary contests between peasants and townfolk on the one hand and the feudal nobles on the other, the uprising of the Swiss alone succeeded. The durability of Swim independence is the more remarkble in that the league by which it was sustained was itself but loosely held together. Zurich, Berne and Lucerne, for example, were not directly allied to one another at all, but only indirectly through the medium of the Forest States. Yet, while the leagues of the German and Italian towns, and even of the Hanse towns, fell to pieces, the Swiss Federation has endured, having been only temporarily suspended during the wars of the French Revolution and the First Empire From their victory at Grandson over Charles

the Bold in 1476 to 1516, when a perpet was concluded between Switzerland and France, the former country played a great part in European politics, and her military superiority was gen erally recognized. At a time when, among other peoples, cavalry still played the chief part in war, the Swiss placed almost exclusive reliance upon their infantry, and it was their example that led Gonsalvo of Cordova to improve the Spanish footsoldier. The Swiss infantry was drawn up in closely compacted lines, in parfect order; the foremost were provided with long pikes, the chief weapon of the Confederates. The various divisions were so arranged as not to get in one another's way during manœuvres. Their enemies admired in the Swiss the wall-like firmness and admirable order in which they themselves were wanting, and a heroic courage which preferred death to retreat. Cavalry could do nothing against the impenetrable forest of bristling pikes, and, when the Swiss van had broken the enemy's ranks, the halberds, clubs, battleaxes and neavy swords of the men stationed in the rear proved murderous weapons. Artillery alone could be of any use against the Swias, but firing was very slow at the beginning of the sixteenth century, and the Confederates having escaped the effects of the first fire, by stooping low, dashed immediately upon the batteries and took them from the enemy Thus they revived the same of foot soldiers, and became the first warriors of the world. Great, however, as was the part which their bravery enabled the Swiss for a time to play, the only lasting advantage gained was the conquest of the territories of Ticino, the Valtelline and Cleves (Claven), the possession of which was guaranteed by France to the Confederates in the porpotest